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Role of genetic variants of the renin-angiotensin system in chronic renal allograft injury

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Role of genetic variants of the renin-angiotensin system in chronic renal allograft injury. In the vast majority of patients undergoing kidney transplantation, long-term success is markedly limited by a gradual decrease in graft function over time, often termed as “chronic rejection” or “chronic allograft injury.” Although there have been no formal studies examining the role of genetic factors other than those related to histocompatibility for the development or progression of chronic allograft rejection, it is likely that genetic factors affecting blood pressure regulation, mesangial or vascular proliferation, or aspects of inflammatory response including thrombosis, chemotaxis, or fibrosis may play an important role in this complex syndrome. There is currently little hope that the responsible genes can be identified through sib-pair or linkage studies in families. Therefore, the study of candidate genes selected on the basis of our current understanding of the pathophysiological mechanisms involved in the chronic rejection response appears the only feasible approach. Thus far, studies have focused mainly on the role of functional genetic variants of the renin-angiotensin system on renal allograft function. These studies, however, have not identified these variants as important determinants of renal allograft survival. Clearly, future studies will have to address the role of other variants of this system as well as genes encoding for other systems deemed to be of pathophysiological significance for the development and progression of chronic transplant injury.

During the last two decades, remarkable improvements in immunosuppression have resulted in dramatic improvements in short-term renal allograft survival. However, in the vast majority of patients undergoing kidney transplantation, long-term success is markedly limited by a gradual decrease in graft function over time. The mechanisms leading to the progressive loss of graft function, often termed “chronic rejection” or “chronic allograft injury,” remain largely unknown and no effective therapy is available [1].

Thus far, both immunologic and non-immunologic factors have been implicated in the development and progression of chronic allograft injury. While the degree of HLA mismatch has not been unequivocally found to be an important determinant of chronic rejection [2, 3], the most consistent immunologic factor related to chronic allograft injury has been the occurrence of acute rejection episodes [3, 4]. Nevertheless, although the introduction of more potent immunosuppressive drugs including cyclosporine has resulted in a marked reduction in acute allograft rejection, to date

this has not had a discernible effect on long-term allograft survival [1, 3].

Non-immunological factors implicated in chronic allograft injury include ischemia time, extremes of age of donor, smoking history, and the presence of hypertension, hyperlipidemia or proteinuria [1]. Despite these associations found in epidemiological cohort and cross-sectional studies, the protective value of intervention with specific anti-hypertensive, lipid-lowering, or anti-proteinuric drugs in preventing chronic allograft rejection has yet to be demonstrated.

Although there have been no formal studies examining the role of genetic factors other than those related to histocompatibility for the development or progression of chronic allograft rejection, it is likely that genetic factors play an important role in this complex syndrome [1]. Biopsy findings characteristically show vascular sclerosis with mural thickening and occlusion of renal arteries and ischemic glomeruli, interstitial infiltration by macrophages and lymphocytes, and interstitial fibrosis [5]. It is thus conceivable that genetic factors affecting blood pressure regulation, mesangial or vascular proliferation, or aspects of inflammatory response including thrombosis, chemotaxis, or fibrosis may determine the extent and progression of chronic allograft injury. These genetic factors can be active both in the host or within the transplanted kidney.

Given the complexity of the factors apparently involved in chronic rejection, there is no reason to believe that a single gene or genetic variant will act as a strong determinant of the loss of renal function by itself. It is more likely that a variety of genetic factors will play a role in determining the response to environmental factors, development of risk factors like hypertension, dyslipidemia or proteinuria, development of allograft injury, and the rate of progression (Fig. 1). As a result, a host of candidate genes could be envisioned to play a role at one or more of these steps in the development of chronic rejection. Luckily, development of end-stage renal failure remains a relatively rare event, and therefore studies in families with several members undergoing kidney transplantation are largely limited to anecdotal reports in families with hereditary renal disease. While in some instances genotyping non-affected parents may play a role in demonstrating preferential transmission of deleterious alleles to affected offspring, there is currently little hope that genes determining the processes involved in chronic allograft injury can be identified through affected sibling-pair or linkage studies in families. Therefore, the study of candidate genes selected on the basis of our

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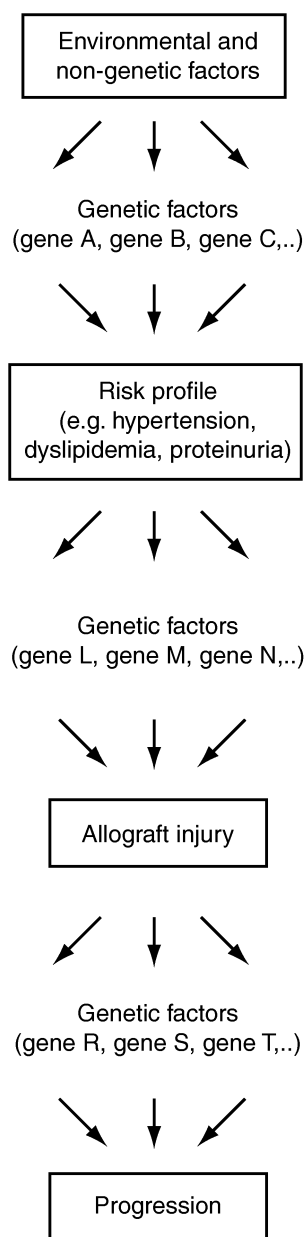


Fig. 1. Relationship between genetic factors and determinants of chronic renal allograft injury.

current understanding of the pathophysiological mechanisms involved in the chronic rejection response appears to be the only feasible approach. It is obvious that the study of functional variants of genes implicated in the development of hypertension or inflammatory response should serve as prime candidates for a role in chronic rejection.

ROLE OF THE RENIN-ANGIOTENSIN SYSTEM

Based on this line of reasoning, the components of the renin-angiotensin system are clearly candidate genes of considerable interest. Several lines of evidence do indeed suggest a role for this system in the development and progression of chronic allograft injury. Thus, hypertrophy of the juxtaglomerular apparatus is a

common histological feature of chronic rejection and presumably indicates increased renin secretion [6]. Higher plasma renin activity has been reported in patients with worsening of graft function [7], and has also been implicated as a cause of post-transplant hypertension [8], an important risk factor for allograft injury [1]. The importance of the renin-angiotensin system for immune-mediated injury in renal [9], cardiac [10], and aortic [11] allografts in rats has been previously demonstrated by attenuation of injury by administration of angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors. Also, short-term studies in humans have demonstrated reduced proteinuria with ACE inhibition in hypertensives with renal transplants [12].

Recent studies have identified a variety of genetic variants of the components of the renin-angiotensin system [13, 14]. This article focuses on the findings derived from studies of these variants in patients with renal allograft transplantation.

ANGIOTENSINOGEN GENE

Angiotensinogen (AGT) or renin-substrate, a protein synthesized primarily in the liver but also in other tissues including the kidney, is catalyzed by renin to angiotensin I, which is subsequently converted to angiotensin II by the angiotensin-converting enzyme. Several family and sibling-pair studies have demonstrated a linkage between the angiotensinogen-gene (*AGT*) locus and essential hypertension [13, 15, 16]. Furthermore, a biallelic variant encoding either for a methionine (M) or threonine (T) at codon 235 of the mature angiotensinogen protein, associated with increased circulating angiotensinogen levels [13], has been linked to an increased risk for the development of hypertension both in Caucasian [13, 17, 18] and Japanese [19–21] humans. We have also reported that the *AGT* 235M/T-variant is associated with an early onset of hypertension in German Caucasian populations both in Berlin and Heidelberg [22]. In a recent meta-analysis we found a 20 to 40% increase in the risk for hypertension associated with the *AGT* 235T variant in Caucasians [23]. This variant of the angiotensinogen gene is now known to be in almost complete linkage disequilibrium with a biallelic variant involving the substitution of an adenine (A) for a guanine (G) nucleotide at position –6 upstream from the initiation site of transcription [24]. This –6A variant apparently binds transcription factors affecting the basal rate of transcription, thereby possibly accounting for the association between the *AGT* 235T variant and increased plasma levels of angiotensinogen.

Given that hypertension is an important risk factor for the progression of chronic allograft injury, and as many as 70% of all renal transplant recipients develop hypertension [1], it is conceivable that a variant of the angiotensinogen gene associated with essential hypertension may also increase the risk for the development of post-transplant hypertension. In rats exogenous angiotensinogen increases blood pressure under a low salt diet, demonstrating that with high renin levels, availability of angiotensinogen determines angiotensin I generation [25]. As higher levels of renin activity are found in a large proportion of renal-allograft recipients [7, 26, 27], one may expect that individuals harboring the *AGT* 235T variant would be more prone to developing post-transplant hypertension.

We recently addressed this question in a study on 269 consecutive patients undergoing kidney transplantation between 1988 and 1993 at our hospital [28]. Genomic DNA for genetic analysis was prospectively collected from all recipients and donors and the

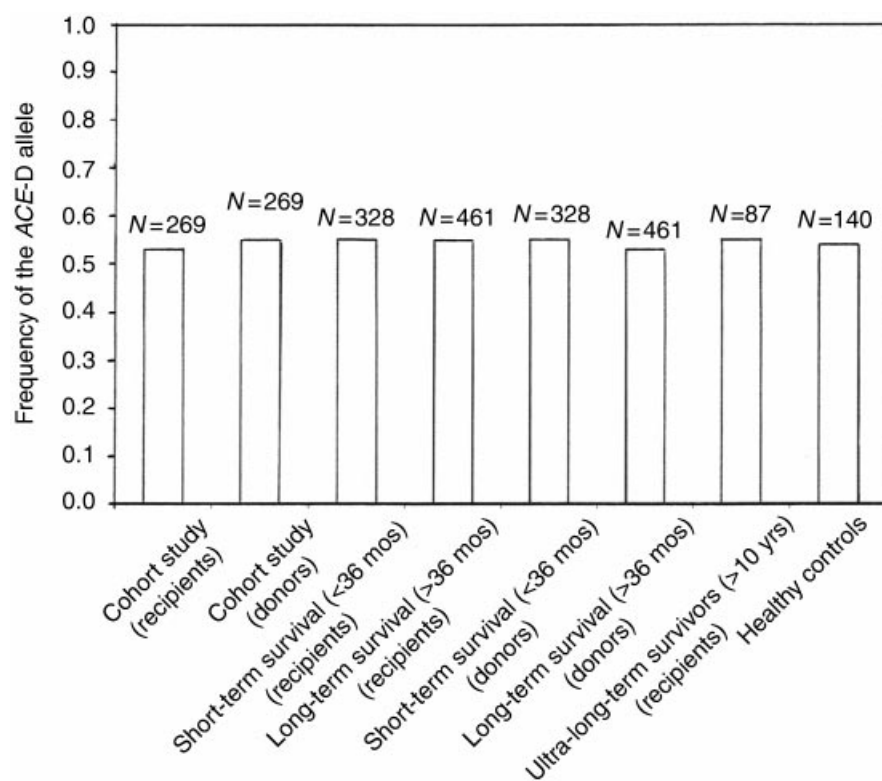


Fig. 2. Allelic frequencies of the *ACE*-D allele in donors and recipients undergoing renal transplantation, long-term survivors of renal transplantation, and healthy controls (Adapted from [48, 49]).

presence of hypertension, and graft survival was analyzed by blinded review of all case records over a follow-up period up to 30 months. Angiotensinogen genotype was determined by a mutagenically-separated allele-specific polymerase-chain-reaction technique. While post-transplant hypertension was present in 78% of all patients, we found no relationship between either donor or recipient genotype and the presence or severity of post-transplant hypertension. Furthermore, there was no relationship between angiotensinogen genotype and graft survival during the course of the study. These findings clearly do not support the hypothesis that the M235T-variant of the angiotensinogen gene is a risk factor for the development of post-transplant hypertension. This finding may indicate that other factors including administration of cyclosporine, salt and fluid retention, or administration of glucocorticoids may have a greater impact on the development of hypertension than the angiotensinogen genotype. However, this study does not rule out that this genetic variant may predispose to the development of post-transplant hypertension or chronic rejection in a subset of patients.

ANGIOTENSIN CONVERTING ENZYME

In most tissues ACE is the key catalyst of the conversion of angiotensin I to angiotensin II. Serum and tissue levels of ACE are now known to be under genetic control [14]. Thus, individuals harboring a deletion (D) of a 289 bp *Alu* sequence located in intron 16 of the gene display higher humoral and tissue activity of this enzyme than individuals who are homozygous for the insertion (I) allele [14, 29]. Although ACE exists in a free circulating form, most of it is expressed as a transmembrane protein that is

also present both in endothelial and epithelial cells in the kidney [30].

Apart from its role in the renin-angiotensin system, ACE is also the major inactivating enzyme of bradykinin, substance P, and other peptides that play important roles in several aspects of inflammatory and immunological responses [31]. Importantly, large amounts of ACE are expressed constitutively in macrophages [32], monocytes, and T-lymphocytes [33], and in the latter, *ACE* expression is also known to be under genetic control, with homozygotes for the D-allele expressing markedly higher levels of this enzyme than other individuals [33].

Recent studies have now implicated the *ACE*-D variant as a risk factor for the development of diabetic nephropathy [34–37] and an increased rate of progression of IgA nephropathy [38–40], but these findings have not been confirmed by all investigators [23, 41–45]. In 1995 Gaciong et al also reported a higher prevalence of the *ACE*-D allele ($q_D = 0.63$) in kidney transplant recipients versus healthy age-matched blood donors ($q_D = 0.52$), and suggested that this may be due to the fact that the *ACE*-D allele is a risk factor for the progression of renal disease [46]. In a more recent study, homozygosity for the *ACE*-D variant has also been described as a risk factor for early development of end-stage renal failure in patients with *PKD1* adult polycystic kidney disease [47]. The implication of this genetic variant in the progression of a variety of renal diseases of considerable etiological heterogeneity suggests that the role of this polymorphism may be rather unspecific, possibly affecting structural or inflammatory processes common to the majority of progressive renal disorders.

Based on these findings, we recently examined the hypothesis

that the *ACE* I/D genotype may be related either to the onset or progression of chronic allograft injury. This question was addressed in three distinct settings: a single-center cohort of 269 Caucasian patients undergoing kidney transplantation between 1988 and 1993 in whom we analyzed the appearance of biopsy-confirmed chronic rejection or allograft loss over a follow-up period of 30 months [48]; a multi-center case-control study in 328 patients with an allograft survival of less than three years (median survival 11 months) versus 461 patients with an allograft survival of at least three years (median survival 65 months) [48]; a group of 86 transplant recipients with a graft survival of at least 10 years (median survival 156 months) [49]. Neither in the cohort nor in the case control was there a significant effect of recipient or donor *ACE* genotype on transplant survival. Furthermore, the frequency of the *ACE*-D allele both in donors and recipients was similar to that reported by us and others in healthy Caucasian controls (Fig. 2). Likewise, in the patients surviving with a renal allograft for at least ten years, the frequency of the *ACE*-D allele was similar to that found in patients with early graft loss.

This lack of relationship between the *ACE*-I/D genotype is also in line with a recent report on a Dutch cohort [50] of 318 patients with at least one year of graft survival. In that study, the relative risk for graft failure over a five year follow-up period in DD recipients was 1.82 (95% CI 0.66 to 5.01) versus the II genotype. After correction for acute rejection and inclusion of patients dying with a functioning allograft, the five-year allograft failure in DD recipients was higher than in II recipients (RR 1.92; 95% CI 0.91 to 4.02), but this result was not statistically significant. These authors, therefore, likewise concluded that neither donor nor recipient *ACE*-genotype significantly affected graft survival.

Nevertheless, the lack of relationship between renal allograft survival and the *ACE* I/D genotype does not completely rule out a role for increased ACE activity in the development of chronic allograft rejection. Other variants of the *ACE* gene [51] might yet be associated with either the development of end-stage renal failure or the progression of renal injury including chronic transplant rejection, and the *ACE*-gene therefore remains an attractive candidate gene. Furthermore, given that the development of chronic transplant rejection is probably the result of a complex interaction between a variety of immunologic, genetic, and environmental factors [1], these findings do not completely rule out an importance of the *ACE* genotype in certain subsets of patients or under certain environmental conditions.

Since the *ACE*-D allele has also been associated with increased humoral and tissue activity of this enzyme [14, 29, 33], it appears worthwhile to pursue the question of whether individuals with the DD genotype profit more from therapeutic blockade of the renin-angiotensin system than other individuals. This suggestion is based on the findings of Yoshida et al [39], who demonstrated a significant reduction of proteinuria following ACE inhibition in patients with IgA nephropathy and the DD genotype, but not in patients with the ID or II genotype. Similarly, individuals harboring the D allele were found to have a larger decrease in blood pressure during ACE inhibition than II patients [52], indicating that the *ACE* genotype may significantly influence the therapeutic response to blockade of the renin-angiotensin system.

SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK

While the complexity and variability of chronic allograft rejection makes it very likely that genetic factors play a role in the

development or progression of this syndrome, current studies focusing on the renin-angiotensin system have thus far not identified genetic variants of this system as important determinants. These negative findings, however, do not rule out a role for this system in the functional, inflammatory, or structural changes found in chronic rejection. Clearly, future studies will have to address the role of genetic variants of genes coding for components of other systems that may play a role in these processes. However, given our current limited understanding of the pathomechanisms involved, the host of potential candidate genes makes this a daunting, if not impossible, task. Hopefully, further experimental and clinical studies will improve our understanding of the pathophysiological mechanisms determining progressive renal allograft injury and will thus facilitate the selection of relevant candidate genes for future investigations.

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